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the playmate relationship is sometimes dependent on a potential social relationship. The playmate relationship may exist between a man and his wife's brother's wife, but only if she belongs to some clan other than his own; for a woman of the same clan is a sister, and the joking relationship with a sister is not permissible.

As regards the use of personal names, the general rule is that no one of the generation immediately senior may be addressed by his personal name. Thus a man may not address by their personal names his father or father's brothers and cousins, his father's wives, his mother and her brothers and cousins, though he may so address his grandparents and their brothers and cousins. A son may, however, call his father by a personal name of his own invention, and a mother by the new name bestowed on her by her husband at marriage.

Parents-in-law are not addressed by their personal names; but this rule appears to be relaxed frequently between a man and his father-in-law, as the taboo between these two relatives appears to be of a less strict character than that subsisting between a man and his mother-in-law and a woman and her parents-in-law. The taboo between a man and his mother-in-law is so strict that he will leave the road when he sees her coming; and not merely does he avoid the use of her personal name, but she avoids his also. It may be of interest to describe here a meeting witnessed between a man aged sixty and the parents of his young wife. He had travelled a long distance to see them. He went down on his knees before his mother-in-law and bent his head, murmuring, "Akwaiya akwangnu—are you well, mother-in-law?" To which she replied: "Ungwanu ka kwa sha sham?" (Is my daughter well?). The mother-in-law also asked after the welfare of her daughter's child, and there the conversation finished. The son-in-law withdrew, and then dispatched a boy to his mother-in-law with a gift of a bag of salt, as modesty would have prevented his handing it to her personally. He then sought out his father-in-law, with whom there was much less restraint. After the formal greetings he handed his father-in-law a gift of several pounds of tobacco and had a lengthy evening's conversation with him. When it came to the time of the evening meal, however, each ate his meal by himself in the company of a young boy of the household.

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on the uncle's death, receive a share of the inheritance. In the ordinary course, however, the sister's son never inherits, though he enjoys numerous privileges during the uncle's lifetime. When he visits his uncle's home he may appropriate any of the latter's property. He has a good deal of say in the disposal of the hand of his uncle's female child, and may receive the bride-price (though he would hand over a proportion to his uncle). In bygone days when he obtained a human head he took it to his maternal uncle, who gave gifts to his nephew and had the head cleaned of flesh. Similarly, the head of every animal killed during a hunt was handed over to the maternal uncle, the head being regarded as a principal part; "for can an animal live without its head?" an appropriate remark for a head-hunting tribe. The maternal uncle could not, among the Katab (as he could among sections of the neighbouring tribe), sell or pawn his sister's son in time of stress. The lad's father or paternal uncle alone could take this extreme measure. The practices described do not in themselves imply any condition of a former mother-right. It is perfectly natural that a boy should regard his mother's home as his own second home, and that when he visits it he should be a welcome and privileged person; for his visits are necessarily infrequent, as he has to make a considerable journey in order to reach his mother's village. That a boy is not allowed to appropriate his paternal uncle's property in the same way as that of his maternal uncle is easily understood, as he lives in daily contact with his paternal uncle. We can also understand that he has fewer privileges in the home of his father's sister, for that home is controlled by the father's sister's husband, who sees no reason why inroads should be made on his property by his wife's nephew. It is interesting to note that females are not privileged to appropriate property from the maternal uncle in the same way as males; but a maternal uncle provides his niece with numerous gifts at marriage.

More suggestive of a former condition of mother-right is the Katab custom that the first two children of a man and a woman who was married as a virgin have to be formally handed over to the wife's family group. The first child is taken, two months after its birth, to the home of the wife's parents, who, after an interval of a month, summon the husband and hold a feast. Prayers are offered for the child's welfare by the wife's father

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851 606 583 or brother, who then delivers him back to the husband, saying: "Take this child in full payment of the labour which you, in your suitor days, expended on my farm." The second child has to be redeemed, at the present day, by a money payment of 7s., which is regarded as compensation to the wife's parents for expenditure incurred on her marriage trousseau. If the [171] payment were not made the wife's parents could retain the child, a custom found among the Matabele of South Africa. In the case of offspring born to a secondary wife (i.e. one who had eloped) it is the first child that has to be redeemed by the money payment of 7s., and there is no claim on a second child. The reason for this is obvious, viz. that the husband of a secondary wife had performed no agricultural service on the farm of his parents-in-law. Among the neighbouring Kachichere tribe every [171] child has to be redeemed from the mother's family. There is a fixed scale of cash payment to-day, viz. 5s. for the first child, 4s. for the second, 3s. for the third, and so on. (Compare the Hausa custom of "Kworia nono" and see Westermarck's *History of Human Marriage*.)

These customs throw, perhaps, more light on the subject of the bride-price than they do on that of mother-right.[1] A woman who has proved her fertility is considered to be worth more than one who has not. The original bride-price has therefore to be supplemented when children are born. In this connection we are reminded of one of the laws of Hammurabi, which required that the bride-price should revert to the husband if the wife died without having borne him children.

The Katab custom of waiving the redemption payment on account of agricultural service rendered may indicate that marriage by capture was in earlier times the normal mode of marriage. The further custom of redeeming the second child for a payment, which is regarded as compensation for the girl's trousseau, is an interesting link between the bride-price and what may be regarded as a dowry, and also indicates that the claim on children may have had nothing to do with an inherent mother-right system, but was regarded merely as compensation for the loss at marriage of a daughter's services, and for the expense of fitting her out.

[1] For further data on this subject the reader is referred to the paper on the Mumuye-speaking peoples, vol. i, ch. viii.

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matter—she will bear her child in the new husband's home and wean it there. The child belongs, however, to the biological father (i.e. the first husband), and must be returned to him as soon as it is weaned. But how will the new husband regard that child? He is bound by tribal custom to treat it during the weaning period with the same care as he would his own, and if he displays ill-nature his new wife will promptly abandon him. If the child by the former husband dies the dead body is sent back to him as proof that it has really died.

A husband, therefore, takes every care to keep his wife contented, and he has studiously to cultivate her parents also. He visits them constantly with gifts, tobacco for the father and salt for the mother (the mother of his wife may not be living with the father of his wife, and he may therefore have to make separate visits to villages perhaps fifty miles apart). The more attractive his wife is, the more presents he must give. There is little question of adultery among the Katab. For no man would think of having sexual relations with the wife of a member of his own local group. The idea would be so repugnant as to be inconceivable. But a clansman of another subdivision may elope with a wife, and when this happens there is no remedy. The first husband cannot claim a refund of the bride-price; he merely hopes that one day his wife will return to him. If he were to demand the return of the bride-price, he would be repudiating his wife for ever; and in any case no Katab would ask for the return of a bride-price for a woman who had lived with him for a year. And so he proceeds to make good his loss by trying to abduct the wife of some other clansman (who does not belong to his own subdivision).

There is no doubt that the custom of sub-marriage plays a predominant part in the social life of a Katab, who may be said to spend the year endeavouring to retain a wife who suits him, or in working out the means by which he can obtain the wife of someone else. If he saves money it is with a view to contracting a sub-marriage, a barren investment if the woman leaves without even becoming enceinte.

Family Life and Occupations.—The Katab are agriculturists pure and simple; they have practically no industries. They farm rather more extensively than most pagan tribes, the average acreage per adult farmer ranging from four to six. A grown-up